DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 312 679 CS 506 728

AUTHOR Elliott, William R.; And Others
TITLE Predicting Future Theatrical and Video Movie Use: Movie Gratifications, Avoidances, and Dependency.
PUB DATE Aug 89
NOTE 44p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (72nd, Washington, DC, August 10-13, 1989).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Audience Analysis; Factor Analysis; Films; Higher Education; Leisure Time; *Mass Media Use; Media Research; *Models; Path Analysis; Predictor Variables; Questionnaires; Surveys
IDENTIFIERS Communication Theory; *Film Viewing; Media Dependency; Uses and Gratifications Research

ABSTRACT

Three successive models were developed to test the existence of a need that leads individuals to select one mass medium over another and also to examine the idea of audience activity. Since it has been noted that uses and gratifications research has focused excessively on habitual media behaviors, the focus instead was on a medium where choice rather than habit determines use--theatrical movies. For the first model, 152 university students completed self-administered questionnaires which elicited information about their weekend movie attendance for the 2 weeks prior to the administration of the survey, as well as information about each subject's social situation and leisure time goals. The second model extended the ideas to a larger universe of movie watchers by including videotape as well as theatrical showings. Prediction as to future attendance was based on gratifications, avoidances, and previous attendance variables, and a new variable, dependency. Subjects were 378 university students in the first wave of the study and a final matched sample of 249 students, all of whom completed the questionnaires. Based on the first model, a moderate relationship between generalized leisure time diversion goals and the gratifications associated with theatrical movies appear to exist. Diversion gratifications associated with theatrical movies were found to be significantly related to past attendance but not to future attendance. Evidence of linkages between gratifications associated with movie attendance, movie avoidance, and dependency on movies was found in model two. Further applications of uses and gratifications theory will be tested in the third model. (Four appendixes include factor analyses and factor tables.) (NKA)

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Predicting Future Theatrical and Video Movie Use:

Movie Gratifications, Avoidances, and Dependency

William R. Elliott
School of Journalism
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois 62958
(618) 536-3361

Carolyn A. Lin
Department of Radio-Television
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois 62958
(618) 536-7555

Jayanthi Sothirajah
School of Journalism
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois 62958
(618) 536-3361

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Paper presented to the annual convention of the Theory and Methodology Division, Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Washington, D.C., August 10-13, 1989.

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Perhaps no mass communication model has been as successful as the "uses and gratifications" approach in generating research and controversy among mass communication researchers. The model, which proposes the idea that individuals are motivated to attend to specific media or media content to satisfy (gratify) certain needs and that such attention to the media or to its content can result in specific behavioral, attitudinal, and cognitive effects is very appealing.

However, the model's structural simplicity and easy understandability are not, of themselves, enough to justify its continued place at the center of mass communication research. In this study we look at the uses and gratifications model, coupled with some of the current work being done with individual media dependency ideas, as a predictor of one type of media behavior, watching movies. We have defined movie watching broadly, to include attendance at a movie theater where admission is paid and as watching a movie videotape that is rented or is part of someone's video library. Our goal in doing the studies was to focus attention on a media activity that involved choice rather than more habitual audience behaviors (newspaper reading, television watching). Motion picture watching demands deliberate decisions about which movie, how far to travel, and how much to spend. It should provide an ideal opportunity to test the relationships between the gratifications associated with the use of movies and actual movie attendance.

BEGINNINGS OF USES AND GRATIFICATIONS RESEARCH

Two frequently cited early studies employing a uses and gratifications model are the

studies of the 1942 audiences for radio soap operas done by Herzog (1954) and Berelson's (1954) study of the effects of the 1945 New York City newspaper strike on the 60 subjects he interviewed. From these two early works, it is easy to see why the model generated interest among later researchers.

Herzog (1954) sampled 2,500 Iowa residents during the summer of 1942. She found that 41% of her sample answered positively to the question "Do these programs help you deal better with the problems in your own everyday life?" The degree to which the soaps were perceived as helpful was related to whether the subjects perceived themselves worrying more or less than other women (worriers relied on soaps more than nonworriers) and the level of education of the soap opera audience where college educated listeners were less likely to rely on the soaps for advice than those with high school or grammar school educations. Herzog's basically negative conclusions were that soap operas encouraged "wishful thinking" and the belief that even bad things turn out all right in the end. Soap listeners also learned to blame others for their problems and that fairly simple formulas provided by the soap operas would work to solve their own problems.

Berelson (1954) performed intensive interviews with 60 New York residents during New York City's 1945 newspaper strike which shut down the city's eight major newspapers. While the majority of his subjects indicated that it was important for people to read the newspaper, only a few listed missing serious news as one of their own reasons for missing the newspaper. When asked to name a specific story they would not be able to follow because of the strike, 50% were unable to do so and only 33% could name a serious news event. People did miss radio logs, motion picture listings, financial information, and reading the comics which provided "relief from boredom and dullness of everyday life" (p. 41), labeled "escape" by Berelson. People also missed the papers for information that enabled them to become informed and provided guidance for their own behaviors. However, Berelson also noted that the newspaper had become "a ceremonial or ritualistic or near-compulsive act for many people" (p. 47). This idea, of media use as ritualistic or habitual, has been lost by many of the later

researchers who have adopted a uses and gratifications approach.

USES AND GRATIFICATIONS MODELS

Formal uses and gratifications models were appearing in the early 70s. Perhaps the foremost of these is the one proposed by Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973) to investigate media behaviors in comparison with non-media sources for gratifying needs. Although the concept of "need" was not defined, their research strategy the determination of the "needs" of their respondents and the extent to which various media (radio. television, newspapers, books, film) fulfilled those needs. They pointed out that gratifications can be provided by the *attributes* of the media, their characteristic *content*, and the social and physical *contexts* (italics theirs) in which the media are used. Gratifications referred to the relative effectiveness of various media in the satisfaction of cognitive, affective, integrative, and escapist needs.

The Uses of Mass Communication, edited by Blumler and Katz, appeared in 1974. This collection of writings on uses and gratifications approaches attempted to provide a stronger theoretical framework for the body of research and to bring together some of the influential uses and gratifications critics. Several of the chapters in the collection remain as among the most cited and influential uses and gratifications studies.

Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch (1974) made formal the assumptions of the model and suggested possible relationships between the social situation and audience needs. These assumptions included: 1) an active audience that is goal directed; 2) audience members who provide the link between gratifying particular needs and the choice of a medium to provided the desired gratification; 3) media compete with other sources of need satisfaction; 4) people know and can report on the motives that lead them to certain types of behavior including those associated with gratifying particular needs.

For them (Katz et al., 1974), the social situation was an influence on people's needs and media choices. The social situation could create conflict and tension resulting in attempts to seek easement, sometimes through media use. Furthermore,

the social situation could create an awareness of problems which demanded attention. For some--the handicapped, the incarcerated, the poor--the social situation offered impoverished real-life opportunities to satisfy certain needs. Group memberships could require that people be knowledgeable about certain things. In each of these cases, mass media consumption was suggested as one possible source of gratification for socially generated needs and expectations.

This early approach to uses and gratifications studies encountered significant criticism, even in the *Uses of Mass Communication* volume. McGuire (1974) pointed out that a significant portion of our mass media behavior results not from motivation states but from our cultural and social pattern. That does not, of course, preclude the role of motivations as joint determinants of media behavior. And, as McGuire noted, from the perspective of a hierarchy of needs, those that can be gratified by media can appear as trivial. Nevertheless, people did seem to spend significant time with the mass media and must have been getting something from it. McGuire further suggested that while certain content selection was probably haphazard, continued exposure to a specific type of media content must have been the result of some motivational state, else the behavior should cease without some reinforcement.

The most cited critical review of the uses and gratifications approach has been Philip Elliott's (1974) piece which also appeared in *The Uses of Mass Communication*. Elliott criticized the use of "need" as a central element of the model since "need" represented a hypothetical construct that could not be measured but only inferred. Uses and gratifications research, he further suggested, suffered because of its emphasis on the individual as the unit of analysis. This restricted the opportunity to consider the influence of social structure and process on the flow and use of information. Elliott further criticized the model for its heavy reliance on empiricist approaches whose methodologies, as much as underlying need and motivation states, may have been be responsible for many of the results.

By the early 80s, extensions to the uses and gratifications model were numerous and model development had become more sophisticated. McLeod and Becker (1981)

proposed a complex model, presented in figure 1, involving the social situation, gratifications sought, expectations, media use, and gratifications received. The satisfaction of needs depended upon the availability of the means for satisfaction and

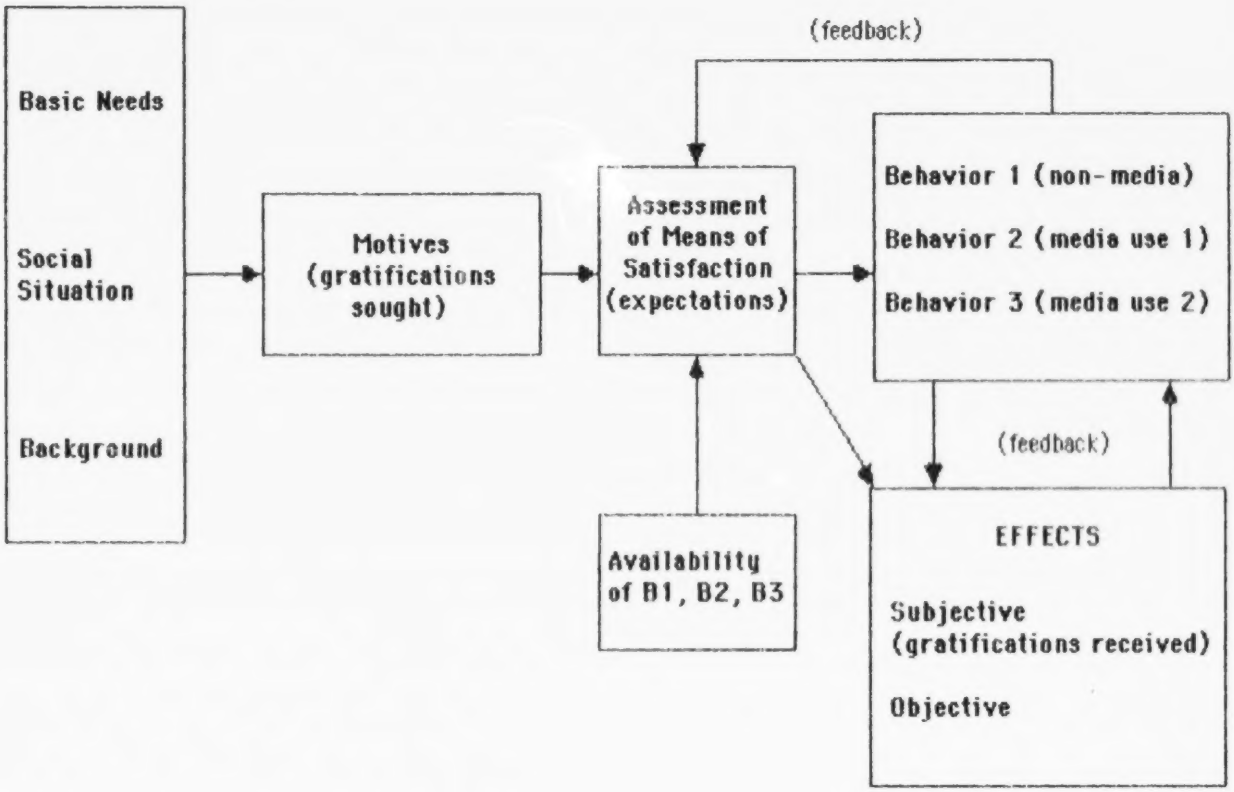

Figure 1

J. M. McLeod & L. B. Becker (1981). The uses and gratifications approach. In Dan Nimmo and Keith R. Sanders (eds.) *Handbook of political communication*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

could be attempted through media or nonmedia behaviors. If the need was a continuing one, as many socially determined needs probably are (e.g. "the need to be informed"), then any behavior attempting to gratify such a need would result in an assessment of how well it has served its purpose. If it failed to do so, another behavior would be sought. If it gratified the need, then it will be continued.

Another model was suggested by Rayburn and Palmgreen (1984). They relied on expectancy-value theory to tie gratifications sought from media behavior to

gratifications obtained resulting from that behavior which fed back to the individual's beliefs (which are modified in accordance with the gratification obtained). In testing the model, Rayburn and Palmgreen administered a survey of the expectations, beliefs, and gratifications sought from specific network television news programs and from television news in general to a sample of 178 students. Two days after the administration of the gratifications sought items, the students were asked to evaluate the gratifications they obtained from watching television news. The findings of this study demonstrated the independence of the gratifications sought and gratifications obtained measures, and of the ability of the belief, evaluation and gratification sought measures as predictors of gratifications obtained. Their model, in graphic form, is shown in figure 2.

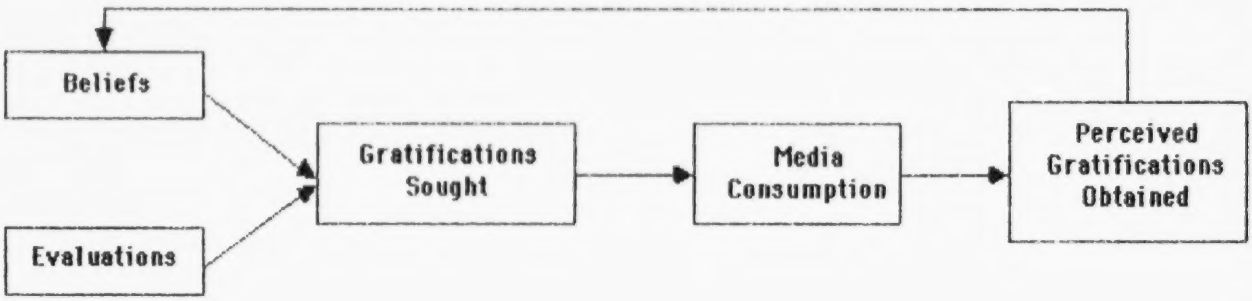

Figure 2

Expectancy-Value Model of Gratifications Sought and Gratifications Obtained

J. D. Rayburn II & P. Palmgreen (1984). Merging uses and gratifications and expectancy-value theory. *Communication Research* 11: 537-562.

In addition to the advances in formal models, researchers noted that the findings of the original Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973) study of the gratifications associated with specific media by an Israeli audience had a nearly precise parallel among American college students (Elliott & Quattlebaum, 1979). Kippax and Murray (1980) discovered similar groupings based on the "helpfulness" of specific media in satisfying specific needs but they also found need importance to be unrelated to the use of radio,

newspapers, television, or journals after controlling for demographic variables. Need importance was related only to the use of books and film, two media behaviors where conscious decisions regarding content and behavior are made by the user.

Much of the emerging complexity that characterizes the uses and gratifications approach was summarized by Palmgreen, Wenner, and Rosengren (1985) in their summary review of this theoretical perspective. Their summary model, presented in figure 3, is too grand for any single study, but it does provide an important map for the classification and discussion of various research strategies. In terms of this model, we are particularly concerned about the "active audience" concept and the relationship between media gratifications and media use.

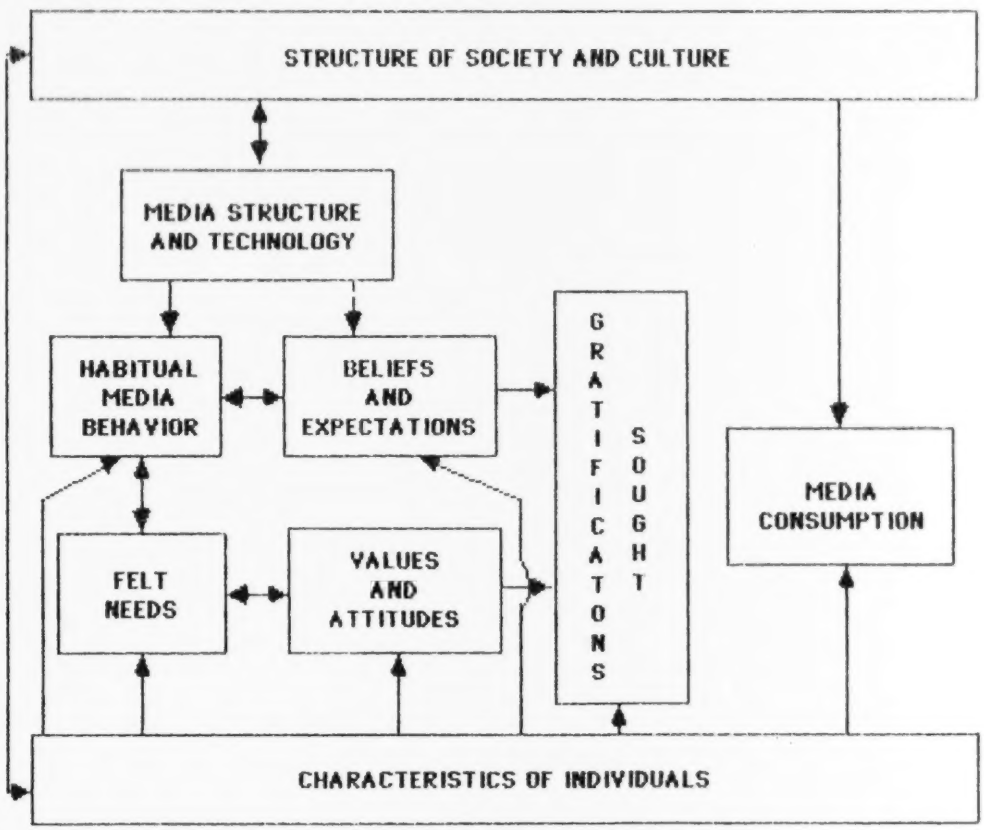

Figure 3

Adapted from P. Palmgreen, L. A. Wenner, & K. E. Rosengren (1985). Uses and gratifications research: The past ten years. In *Media gratifications research: Current perspectives*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

While the uses and gratifications approach has been widely applied by media researchers, some were beginning to note problems with the basic model and to suggest extensions and changes to it. McQuail (1984) attacked the general paradigm on theoretical (theory lacking, confused, poorly defined, and reliance on empirically generated relationships), social and political (conservative functionalist approach to social behavior, content justified in terms of people getting what they want) and modeling grounds (emphasis on behavioralism and failure to recognize existing aesthetic theory). Although McQuail provided a reasoned attack, he also created cultural and cognitive models which incorporated gratification type concepts as "satisfactions" obtained from media content.

Others were pointing out flaws in the model based on empirical findings. Stanford and Riccomini (1984) questioned the gratifications sought and gratifications received concepts, arguing that if people could differentiate between the two, then a proper test would be to determine the direct causal relation between gratifications sought from TV viewing and actual TV viewing. Three television programs, selected as examples of entertainment (*Mork & Mindy*), information (*Washington Week in Review*), and personal guidance (*Edge of Night*) were shown to a group of experimental subjects who had received one of three manipulations that stressed the relationship between television viewing for entertainment, information, or personal guidance as an enjoyable outcome. The findings failed to detect any influence of the manipulation of subjects' program orientation and greater program enjoyment. The authors concluded that the uses and gratifications model cannot be used to predict specific program effects.

Lichtenstein and Rosenfeld (1983) used the gratification items developed by Elliott and Quattlebaum (1979) to compare then rank orderings of gratifications for eight media across seven groups--frequent users, moderate users, infrequent users, high fans, moderate fans, low fans, and the rankings obtained in the Elliott and Quattlebaum study. There were virtually no differences in the gratification rankings of the eight media for any of the seven groups. Their interpretation of the findings was

that gratifications associated with the various media were not the result of audience "need" states but were part of a shared media *image* (italics theirs) that is culturally determined. More recently, in two studies relating gratifications associated with newspapers during a Philadelphia newspaper strike (Elliott & Rosenberg, 1987; Rosenberg & Elliott, 1989a), findings suggested that newspaper use was primarily habitual and not based on underlying needs that would lead to media related behaviors.

GRATIFICATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH MOTION PICTURES: MODEL I

In summary, some of the major current concerns with the uses and gratifications approach center, in part, around the failure of the model to adequately document the existence of a needs that lead individuals to select one medium or another, depending upon the general need operating at the time. A second concern focuses on the idea of audience activity. Certainly, some of the research suggests, strongly, that a significant proportion of media behavior is based on habit and opportunity and not on any selective mechanism by the individual. To test both propositions, we developed the model presented in figure 4.

In accepting Weibull's (1985) criticism that uses and gratifications studies have focused excessively on habitual media behaviors, we focused on a medium where choice rather than habit determines use, theatrical movies. The idea of choice and selectivity in movie attendance is supported in a study by Austin (1981) who discovered over 70% of both occasional and frequent movie goers indicated they were most likely to go to a movie when a picture of particular interest to them was being shown.

We vary slightly from traditional uses and gratifications terminology in model I. Rather that writing about "needs," we instead use the more accessible idea of "goal," a suggestion originally put forward by DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1982). A goal is a desired state of being and may, or may not, be dependent upon some underlying need state. Individuals can, as discovered through talking with our students, articulate their goals for leisure time activities over the weekend. We also have elected to

avoid using "gratifications sought" or "gratifications received" as names for what we define as "satisfactions of particular goals." Rather, we use "gratifications associated" with movies to describe this concept, based on studies that suggest gratifications result from media use (Rosenberg & Elliott, 1989a) or represent socially agreed upon characteristics of media (Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1983).

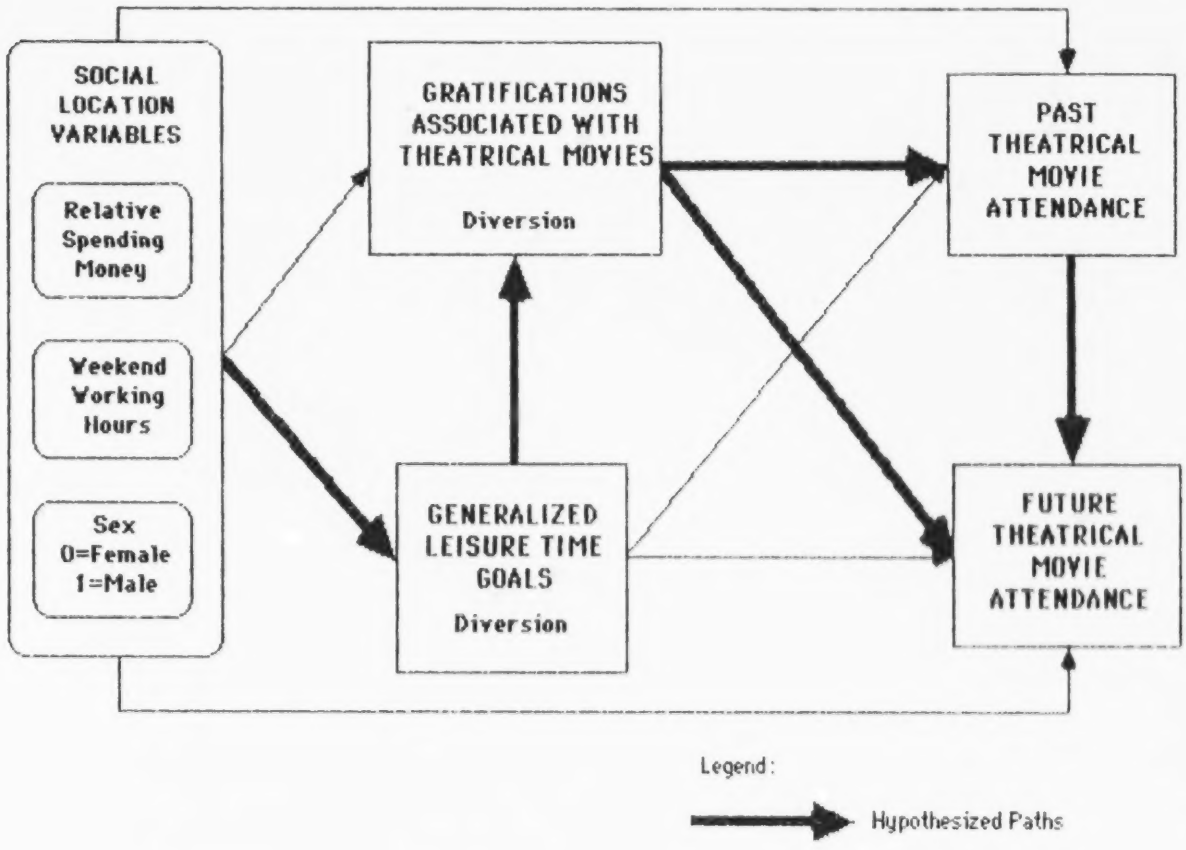

Figure 4

Model I: Leisure Time Goals, Gratifications Associated with Theatrical Movies and Theatrical Movie Attendance

In the model, leisure time goals are determined primarily by the individual's social situation. For example, available time, the degree of stress during nonleisure time, money, etc. represent some of the social situational factors that can influence leisure time goals. Depending upon the leisure time goals that result from these social

situation factors, gratifications associated with theatrical movies may or may not satisfy a particular goal. For instance, Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973) found that film (cinema) and books were the most important media for "escaping" from everyday experiences. They further determined that movies were the highest rated mass medium for raising morale, experiencing beauty, releasing tension, being entertained, and spending time with friends. Thus, if some type of diversionary or escapist goal is sought by a person, and such an escapist gratification is associated with watching a movie, then the likelihood of movie attendance should be strengthened during leisure time periods. On the other hand, should someone set a leisure goal involving "learning about other cultures" who does not associate watching movies with the satisfaction of that goal, then movie attendance should be less likely.

To test model I, we looked at theatrical motion picture attendance at two time points. The information gathered at time 1 was about our subjects' weekend movie attendance at a theater over the two weeks prior to the administration of the survey questionnaire (Past Theatrical Movie Attendance), which also contained a number of gratification and social location measures. One week after the first questionnaire administration, the subjects were asked about their theatrical movie attendance (Future Theatrical Movie Attendance), but this time to the weekend movies they had watched since the last questionnaire. We then tested how well our model predicted both attendance measures using path analysis techniques.

Model I Methods

The sample. University students in two large lecture sections of mass communication courses completed self-administered questionnaires in late April and early May, 1988. Matched time one and time two questionnaires were obtained for 152 students. Matching was done using the last four digits of the student number placed on a cover sheet. Upon completion of the time two administration and the matching of time one and time two questionnaires, the students were assigned a subject number and the

cover sheets were removed and discarded.

The variables. To index each subject's **social situation**, we asked them how many hours they worked on the weekend, how they felt about their spending money (i.e. did they have "more than enough [4], just about right [3], not quite enough [2], or not nearly enough [1] spending money for the weekends?), and their sex.

To determine general **leisure time goals**, each respondent was asked how important ("very important" to "very unimportant" on a five point scale) it was that they use their weekend time to accomplish 13 weekend goals suggested to us by students in interpersonal interview sessions and from previous gratification research. Among the 13 goals were "to get rid of frustrations and anxieties," "to be entertained," "to seek new experiences," and "to feel close to someone I really care about."

The **gratifications associated with theatrical movies** were measured in a manner parallel to the measurement of the leisure time goals. Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed (five point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree) with 13 statements of the following type: "Movies help me to feel close to someone I really care about"; "Movies help me keep up with important events"; "Movies help me overcome feelings of loneliness." The gratifications associated with theatrical movies were then factor analyzed using principal components analysis with varimax orthogonal rotation. (Details of the factor analysis can be found in appendix A.) Items were retained on a factor if they had a primary loading of at least .50 and no secondary loading above .40. Three factors (factor analysis results reported in appendix A) resulted which accounted for 56.3% of the total variance. The factors were identified as relating to diversion (escape from schoolwork, release built-up tension, entertainment, rid of frustrations and anxieties), information (improve my mind, get in touch with inner self, keep up with important events, provide new experiences), and social contact (feel part of a crowd, overcome loneliness). Of the three factors, only one, diversion, had an acceptable level of internal reliability as measured by Cronbach's alpha (.78). It alone is included in the following analysis.

Theatrical movie attendance was measured at time one by asking how many movies at a theater they had seen over the past two weekends (Past Theatrical Movie Attendance). At time two, one week later, the subjects were asked how many theatrical movies they had seen last weekend (Future Movie Attendance).

Model 1 Analysis and Discussion

The results of the test of the model presented in figure 4 are presented as the path model (model 1a) in figure 5. The numerical entries in figure 5 represent the standardized path coefficients (ß's). Path coefficients were computed by regressing each endogeneous variable on the exogenous variables, after nonsignificant ($p > .05$) paths were eliminated (Duncan, 1971). The table of zero-order intercorrelations is listed in appendix C. With but one exception, the hypothesized relationships were supported.

Two of the social location variables, relative spending money and sex, were related as hypotesized to the model variables. Relative spending money had a direct path to generalized leisure time goals (ß = .18) and to past theatrical movie attendance (ß = .17). Sex was related, as predicted, to the generalized leisure time goals (ß = -.23). Sex was also related, not as predicted, directly to the diversion gratifications associated with theatrical movies (ß = -.25). For both cases, males were less likely than females to seek diversion as generalized leisure time goals or as gratifications associated with theatrical movies.

As hypothesized, generalized leisure time goals were directly related to gratifications associated with theatrical movies (ß = .33) but had no significant direct paths to past theatrical movie attendance or to future theatrical movie attendance. The idea that specific gratifications associated with media are related to generalized goals finds some support here. The notion is also supported that generalized leisure time goals do not operate directly on movie attendance but serve instead to operate through appropriately associated movie gratifications.

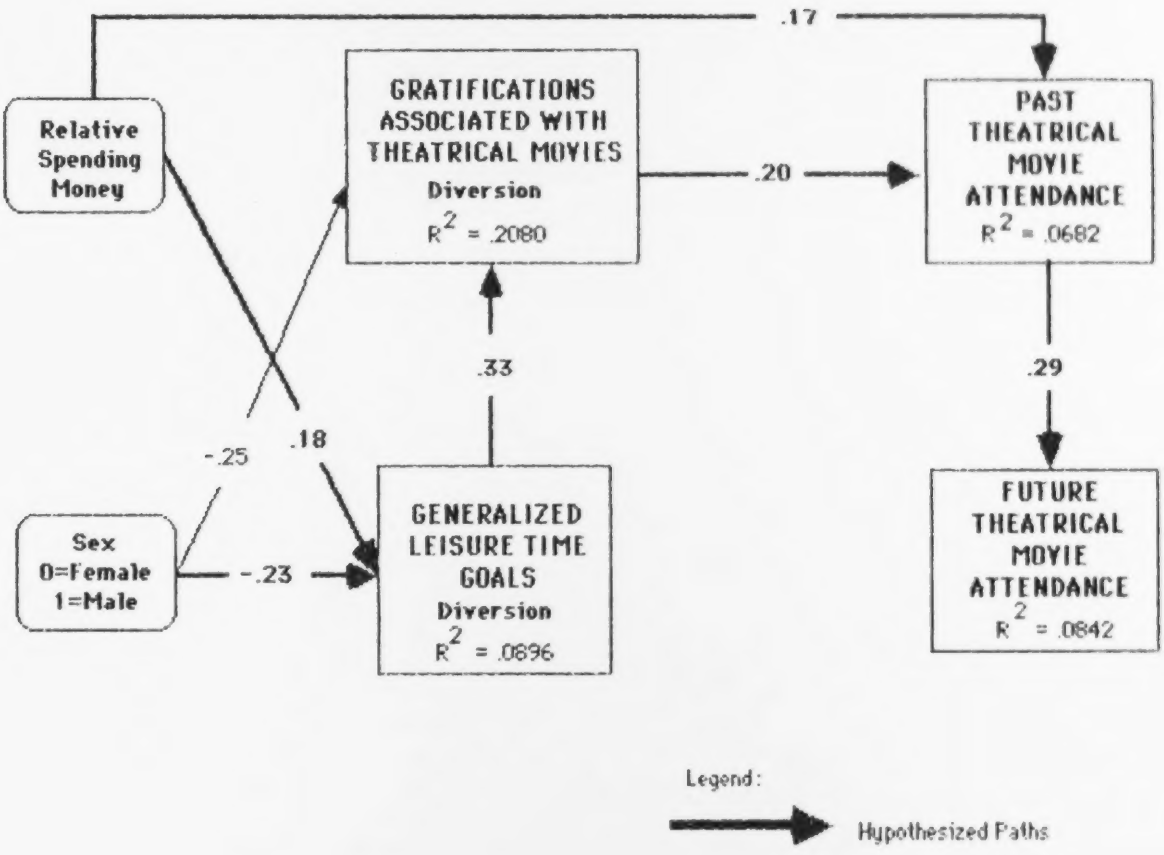

Figure 5

Model Ia: Path Coefficients for Model 1.
For all coefficients, $p \leq .05$, N = 148.

Diversion gratifications associated with theatrical movies were related to past theatrical movie attendance (β = .20) as hypothesized, but not significantly to future movie attendance. As discussed under the "Discussion of Model 1" section, the failure of gratifications associated with movie attendance to predict future theatrical movie attendance is possibly a failure of measurement. It is likely that the one week interval between time 1 and time 2 was simply too short a time span to measure theatrical motion picture attendance.

The only statistically significant predictor of future theatrical movie attendance was past theatrical movie attendance (β = .29). The relatively low beta, as with the failure of the gratifications associated with theatrical movies to predict future

theatrical movie attendance, might be the result of too short a time interval between time 1 and time 2 movie attendance measures.

Discussion of Model 1. The results obtained from the analysis of model 1 are both encouraging and discouraging for several reasons.

On the encouraging side, with the exception of an unanticipated path from social location variables to the gratifications associated with theatrical movies (from the sex measure) and the failure for a direct path between gratifications associated with theatrical movies and future theatrical movie attendance, the hypothesized paths were as predicted. The original idea advanced by Katz, Gurevitch, and Haas (1973), that some form of need (goal) results in attempts to satisfy that need through media use, finds some support in what we feel is a fairly rigorous test of the model.

On the discouraging side, the model does not go very far in accounting for the variation in theatrical movie attendance. In this case, neither the R^2 for past theatrical movie attendance of .068 nor the R^2 for future movie attendance of .084, is very high. A more substantial R^2 is found for the gratifications associated with theatrical movies (.208) but the predictors of the generalized leisure time goals generate an R^2 of only .090.

There are factors that might help to explain the low R^2s. Foremost among these is the possibility that we restricted our movie attendance dependent variables too much. In the time 1 case, our respondents were able to answer only for their behavior over the previous two weekends and in the time 2 case, for only the previous weekend. Movie attendance is not only purposive, as we have argued, but also expensive. In using such a limited period for possible movie attendance, we might have so restricted the possibility for theatrical movie attendance that limited findings were inevitable. To overcome these limitations and to take advantage of what was learned from model 1 and from research appearing after its analysis and modification, a second model for another study was developed.

Uses and Dependency Models

Fairly recently, researchers have started to seriously look at the "media dependency" ideas of DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1982) as part of a gratifications and dependency model. In DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach's dependency model, the audience develops various degrees of dependency on the media, determined by societal stability and the uniqueness and centrality of media systems in a social grouping. During times of social conflict and rapid change, media dependency is increased because of the domination of crisis information by mass media institutions.

Rubin and Windahl (1986) have created a model integrating the uses and gratifications paradigm with media dependency theory. In this integrated model, presented in figure 6, needs and motivations result in mediated or nonmediated behaviors which can lead to a dependency on a medium or its content. Under the types of dependency related to media use, they explicated two types. Instrumental dependency refers to the reliance on mass media to gratify needs or motives. The second type, ritualized dependency, relies on the media to gratify time consumption and diversionary motives. The needs, interests, and motives felt by the audience are themselves largely determined by the social system and the mass media system.

From an extended dependency model, DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989) investigated how dependency relationships between individuals and the media develop when individuals' goal satisfaction requires access to media resources. They have characterized three types of individual media system dependencies. *Understanding* (italics ours) dependencies develop when individuals use the media to help them comprehend and interpret their environment. Typically, surveillance gratifications are of this type. *Orientation* dependencies are related to media use for behavioral guidance. Various forms of this dependency, including communicatory utility, have appeared in the uses and gratifications literature. The third dependency is *play*,

commonly called "escape," "diversion," or "entertainment" in uses and gratifications research. Individuals structure their media systems based on the strengths of the various dependencies and available media. The degree to which such dependencies are aroused results in active content selection, levels of cognitive and affective arousal, and the types of effects (cognitive, affective, and behavioral) that can result from media exposure.

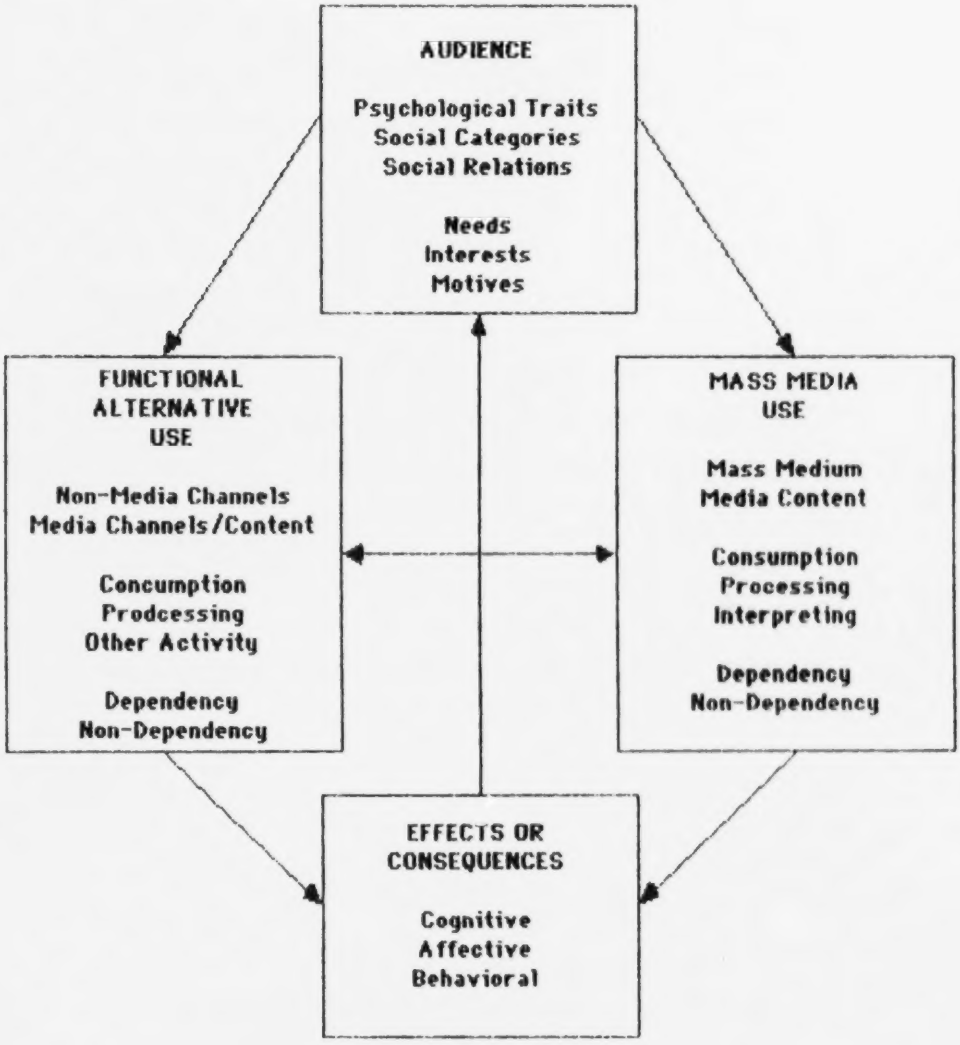

Figure 6

A. M. Rubin & S. Windahl (1986). The uses and dependency model of mass communication. *Critical studies in mass communication, 3,* 184-199.

McLeod and McDonald (1985) used media reliance (similar to dependency) and two gratification dimensions, surveillance and communication utility, in a study of the influence of media on the political process. Their findings indicated that the newspaper and television reliance measures used contributed little to subjects' economic knowledge about inflation, placing the blame for inflation on political actors, and political participation. However, their gratification measures were statistically significant predictors of knowledge about inflation and political participation.

McLeod and McDonald (1985) measured their concept of media reliance on the basis of the rankings of various media as sources of political information. Rosenberg and Elliott (1989b) used a similar procedure to define their media reliance measure, asking respondents to report the information source they relied on most for information about the 1986 Pennsylvania political campaign. They found significant relations between media reliance, media use, and the social reliance orientation "I read the newspaper and watch television to gather information I can use in political arguments." Media reliance did not relate to either campaign knowledge or campaign activity.

Gaziano (1988) used a slightly different measure of media dependency to classify subjects into a 2X2 matrix using high or low television and high or low newspaper dependencies. Operationally, she defined high dependency as anyone who "would feel lost" if they could not read a daily newspaper or, for television dependency, watch television news daily. Using this measure, she found dependency differences based on sex, age, education, and a number of other demographic variables. She also found that dependency was related to media use and to a number of attitudes toward news.

More directly to the point of this study, Palmgreen and Cook (1988) applied a gratifications design employing gratifications sought and avoidance factors to study theatrical film attendance incorporating movie dependency as a dependent variable. Their findings clearly point to linkages between gratifications associated with movies, avoidances of movies, movie dependency and movie attendance. We relied heavily on their research in the development of our model 2.

We extended our ideas to a larger universe of movie watchers in the second model by including videotape as well as theatrical showings. This was done to enable us to apply gratifications research to media use in multimedia environments (Lin, 1989). We also broadened our time frame to include attendance over a two week period, not just over a weekend. By so doing, it was hoped, we would be able to eliminate the types of problems that might have restricted our measure of movie attendance in the first study. We also decided to eliminate the general leisure time goals and to concentrate only on social situational variables, gratifications and avoidances associated with movies, movie attendance, and movie dependency. The model is presented in figure 7.

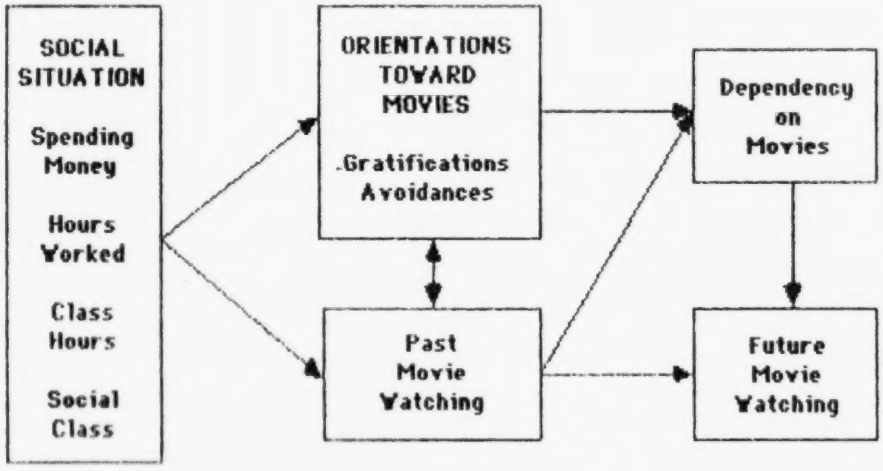

Figure 7

Model 2: Orientations Toward Movies, Movie Dependency, Past and Future Movie Watching (Theatrical and Video)

The model basically follows that from previous studies but adds, again, a new element. In this case, the prediction to future attendance based on gratifications, avoidances, and previous attendance variables. Dependency, still a relatively new variable in conjunction with gratifications studies, is placed in the model as dependent upon past media use and media orientations and as a predictor of future movie attendance. The idea that dependency would result from movie use is implied in the

Rubin and Windahl model (1984) and in Rosenberg and Elliott's (1989b) study of the 1986 Pennsylvania election. The tie from dependency to future movie consumption, although not yet tested in the literature, is strongly suggested in DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989).

Model 2 Methods

The sample. The second study involved a panel of respondents (student volunteers enrolled in university communication clases) who completed self-administered questionnaires at two different times during March of 1989. Identification of the subjects at the two time points was accomplished by matching the last four digits of their student numbers, written on a cover sheet, and then discarding the cover sheets after the matching had been accomplished. There were 378 respondents for the first wave of the study and a final matched sample of 249 subjects. Several classes which had participated in the first wave were forced to drop out for the second administration.

The variables. We described the **social situation** using three measures. As in the earlier study, relative spending money was indexed using a four point scale ranging from "more than enough" to "not nearly enough". In addition, we collected information on the number of hours each student worked per week and their sex.

The three psychological factors--gratifications associated with movies, movie avoidances, and movie dependency, were developed through the adaptation of existing instruments (Elliott & Rosenberg, 1987; Palmgreen & Cook, 1988; Gaziano, 1988; Lin, 1989) and through the creation of new items. These factors were measured only during the time 1 administration of the survey instrument. Factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha were used to group variables within each psychological factor and to provide inter-item reliability checks. Factor analysis was accomplished using principal components analysis, varimax rotation, and orthogonal factors.

The 25 strongly agree to strongly disagree (5 point scale) items measuring

gratifications associated with movies yielded five factors with at least three items and Cronbach alpha scores of .60 or higher. The identified factors included personal identity (4 items, α = .71) which reflected how viewers shared and identified their problems with those portrayed in movies. The second factor, labeled as general learning, was composed of items related to the use of movies as sources of information about other cultures, places, and time periods (3 items, α = .79). A diversion factor, similar to the diversion measure used in the first study, was made up of the escapist aspects of movie viewing (4 items, α = .72). The entertainment factor described the use of movies in a very general sense as something to "have fun" with (4 items, α = .63) and interpersonal communication (3 items, α = .69) was related to subjects' use of movies for conversation and social contact.

Movie avoidances were developed from 12 items which included questions on videos and theatrical movies. Three clear factors emerged. A specific content factor (3 items, α = .84) indicated avoidance because of objections to fairly common movie content--obscenity, nudity, violence. An "inconvenience" factor (6 items, α = .69) related to the cost and difficulties associated with watching theatrical movies or renting videotapes. The third factor, general content (3 items, α = .68) related to very general content concerns, i.e. "movies are done in poor taste," "I don't like most of the themes used in movies," and "most movies don't live up to my expectations."

Movie dependency was developed from five items measuring the subjects' reliance on movie viewing as part of their lifestyle. A single scale five item scale resulted from the factor analysis (α = .78). The following item is typical of those used in the scale: "I would rather spend my leisure time watching movies than doing something else." (Details of the three factor analyses as well as the items making up each factor can be found in appendix B.)

Movie attendance and videotape viewing behaviors were measured by asking the subjects at time 1 to think carefully "over the past two weeks about any movies on videotape you might have watched." They were then instructed to write down the number they had seen, including a zero (0) if they had watched no movies. The mean

for videotaped movies at this time was 2.57. A similar question was asked for theatrical movies. The time 1 mean was .97 movies over the two week period. At time 2, two weeks after the time 1 administration, they were asked to write down the number of videotapes they had seen since they filled out the first questionnaire (mean = 2.63) and the number of theatrical films they had attended during this same period (mean = .69).

Model 2 Analysis and Discussion

We used path analysis to test model 2. In this case, we conducted separate path analyses for theatrical movie attendance and videotape viewing.

In conducting the path analysis, we followed one of the suggestions made by Duncan (1971) that the less meaningful paths in a model be eliminated. While guidelines for such elimination are imprecise (Kerlinger& Pedhazur, 1973), we deemed that model simplification and parsimony was desirable. As a further aid in simplifying the model, we treated the social location, gratification and avoidance variables as exogenous to the variables of movie dependency, past movie attendance/viewing and future movie attendance/viewing. The zero-order intercorrelations for the exogenous variables can be found in appendix D.

We initially regressed each endogeneous variable on its respective exogenous variables. Based on this initial regression analysis, items were eliminated whose ßs were smaller than .10. While there is nothing magical about a ß of .10 being "meaningful," we discovered that using other criteria, such as a specified probability level ($p \leq .10$ or $p \leq .05$) resulted in the elimination of variables that proved to be significant predictors in later regression runs. Regression analyses were then recomputed until a final regression model with all ßs having probabilities less than or equal to .05 resulted.

Theatrical movie attendance. The resulting path model for theatrical movie attendance is presented in figure 8. The model, with the inclusion of avoidances and

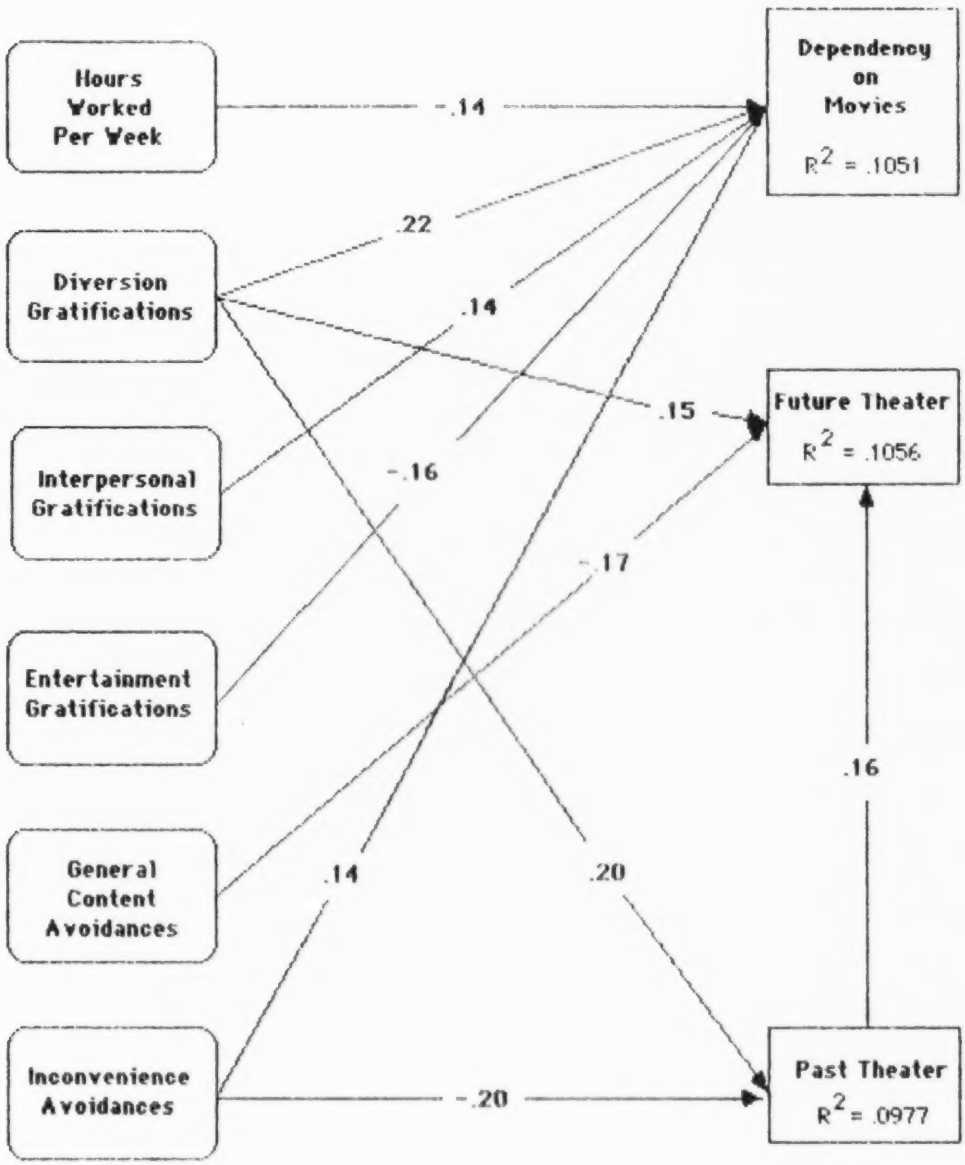

Figure 8

Model 2a: Theatrical Movie Attendance
Path Coefficients for Model 2.
For all coefficients, $p \leq .05$, N = 235.

movie dependency, presents a more complex model than that discovered for theatrical motion picture attendance in model 1a.

In model 2a, as in model 1a, two predictors of past theatrical attendance were discovered. One of the predictors, however, differed. An avoidance factor,

inconvenience, which was not included in the model 1 analysis, functioned as a significant restriction on theatrical movie attendance ($\beta = -.20$). Counterbalancing this, and similar to the findings of model 1, diversion gratifications were linked positively ($\beta = .20$) to past theatrical movie attendance. Unlike model 1a, none of our social location measures had any significant direct impact on past or future movie attendance. At this level, our findings support an earlier proposition that avoidances as well as gratifications be included in uses and gratifications research (Becker, 1980).

Dependency on movies was negatively influenced by the hours each student worked per week, three of the gratifications associated with movie measures, and one of the avoidance measures. The negative path from hours worked per week ($\beta = -.14$) suggests that being occupied in a work environment results in a decreased psychological dependency on movies, perhaps because of the limited time available for movie viewing. For two of the three gratification measures, the relationship between them and dependency is positive. The more movies are seen as sources of diversion, the greater the subject's dependency on movies ($\beta = .22$). A similar linkage exists for those who see movies as useful for strengthening interpersonal relationships. Here the path coefficient ($\beta = .14$) is also positive which suggests that those who theatrical movie attendance as an important part of their interpersonal communication behaviors are also likely to have a psychological dependence on movies.

The most interesting path between the gratifications associated with movies and movie dependency is the one between entertainment gratifications and dependency. Her the relationship is negative ($\beta = -.16$), an unanticipated finding. One guess about why this relationship might exist would be that people who see movies primarily as activities that make them "feel good" or as a way "just to have fun" are also less likely to develop a feeling of psychological dependence on movies since, supposedly, other activities exist that can easily or conveniently replace movies as an entertainment source.

One avoidance measure, inconvenience, was also related to movie dependency, but

opposite in direction to that hypothesized. Here the path coefficient was positive (ß = .14). It is unclear why this should be. Perhaps many college students, the source of our sample, are restricted in terms of transportation, finances, and time. While such restrictions would increase their feelings related to the inconvenience of theatrical attendance, such restrictions might also serve to increase the feeling that theatrical attendance, if it were possible, would be an important part of their lives.

Future theatrical movie attendance in this model was dependent on past movie attendance (ß = .16), as in model 1a. In addition, diversion gratifications associated with movies were also positively associated with future attendance (ß = .15). While neither coefficient is particularly strong, they do provide a replication of the findings of model 1. The general content avoidance measure, as hypothesized, acted as a constraint (ß = -.17) on future movie attendance.

Overall, path model 2a for theatrical motion picture attendance presents a picture showing the independence between movie dependency and theatrical movie attendance, either past or future. It also reflects the influence of both movie avoidances and gratifications associated with movies as predictors of past and future theatrical attendance. The addition of the avoidance measures improves the predictive power considerably for movie attendance in comparison with model 1a. Finally, the path between past and future movie attendance was significant, but not particularly strong (ß = .17) and less than that for model 1a.

The results of the path analysis using the same exogenous variables but investigating videotape viewing are presented as model 2b in figure 9. While the model resembles model 2a for theatrical movie attendance, there are important differences.

Past videotape viewing operated independently of all of our gratification measures. Not even diversion was positively linked to past, or for that matter future, videotape viewing. Videotape viewing was influenced, negatively, by two of our avoidance measures, inconvenience avoidances (ß = -.16) and specific content avoidances (ß = -.18). The proportion of variance accounted for by our predictors of past videotape viewing was a modest 7.12%.

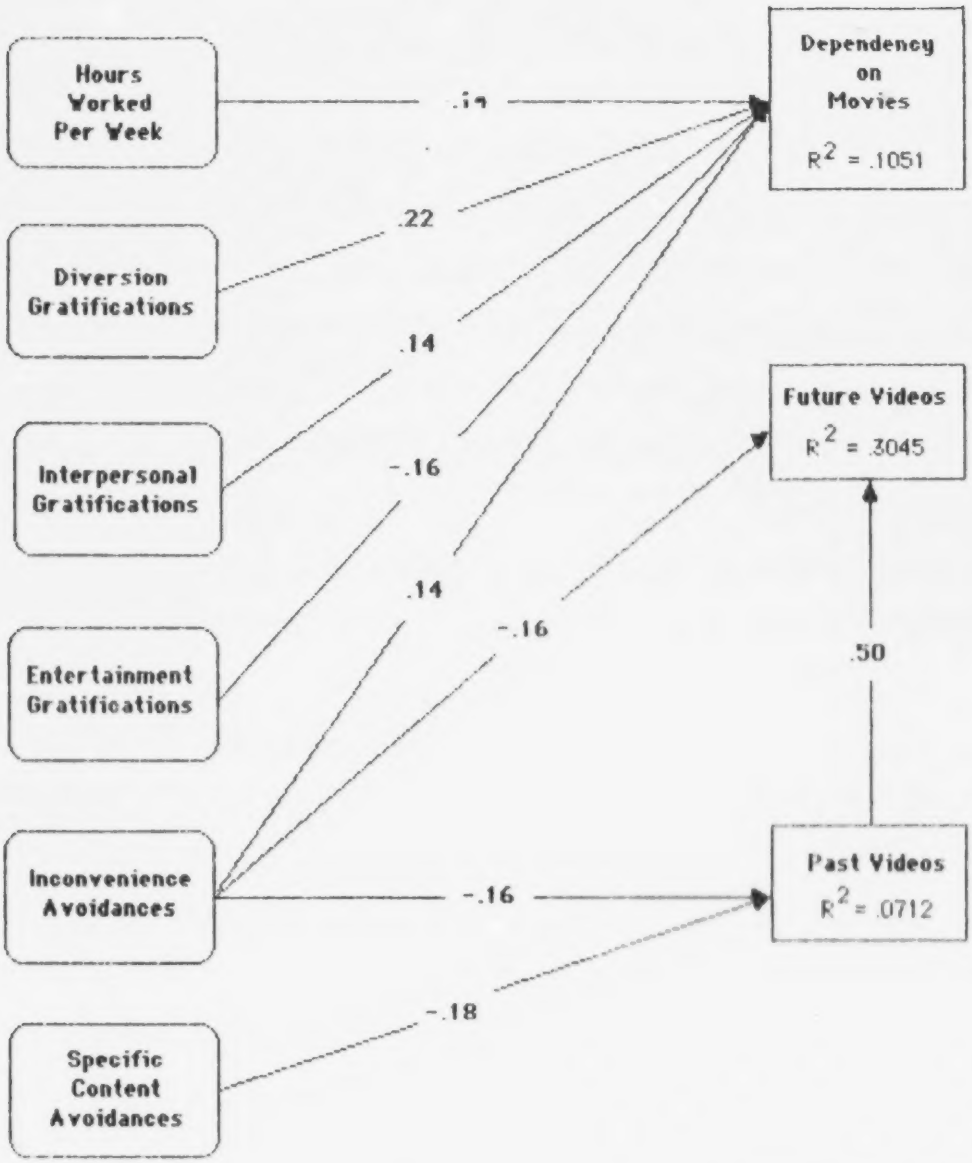

Figure 9

Model 2b: Video Path Coefficients for Model 2.
For all coefficients, $p \leq .05$, N = 235.

Dependency on movies, as with the theatrical movie attendance model, was unrelated to either past or future videotape viewing. Psychological dependency on movies apparently operates independently of the frequency of movie viewing on videotape on in theaters, somewhat contrary to the model developed by DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989). It also does not seem to be dependent on movie attendance, as

suggested by Rosenberg and Elliott (1989a).

The ß of .50 between past videotape viewing and future videotape viewing was the largest ß found in any of our path models. Future videotape viewing was also influenced, negatively, by the inconvenience avoidance factor (ß = -.16). This finding, as with the findings on avoidances for model 2a and theatrical movie attendance, further supports the importance of avoidances as factors influencing the watching of movies in theaters or on videotape.

Comparing the two models (2a for theatrical movies and 2b for videotape movies), the strongest differences lie in the importance on past attendance/viewing behaviors as predictors of future use. Here, the data suggest that some habitual behavior develops for videotape viewing and that past behaviors, at least over a two week period, are more strongly related to future videotape viewing than with the case of past and future theatrical attendance.

The influence of the diversion gratifications associated with movies is a consistent predictor of both past and future theatrical movie attendance but fails to emerge as a predictor of past or future videotape viewing. Avoidances, in both models, are linked to past and future attendance/viewing.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION: MODEL 3

In sum, the present study has helped to resolve several theoretical issues that have troubled uses and gratifications researchers. First, we have found some support for the proposition that gratifications associated with media use are related to generalized goals. Based on our first model, a moderate relationship between generalized leisure time diversion goals and the gratifications associated with theatrical movies (ß = .33) appears to exist. Furthermore, diversion gratifications associated with theatrical movies were found to be significantly related to past theatrical movie attendance but not to future theatrical movie attendance (our strongest test of the relationship between gratifications associated with movies and

movie attendance). This latter finding was somewhat disappointing given the expectation that such gratifications should be related to media use, a common assumption in uses and gratifications literature.

We extended the findings obtained from our analysis of model 1 to include movie avoidances and movie dependence measures in addition to a new set of gratifications associated with movies in model 2. In our second model, we found evidence of linkages between gratifications associated with movie attendance, movie avoidances and dependency on movies. These findings were interpreted as partially supporting the work of Rosenberg and Elliott (1989b) who found that media dependence was influenced by the gratifications associated with media. However, movie dependency was unrelated to either theatrical or videotape viewing of movies, contrary to what had been predicted based on DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach's model (1988) and opposite to Rosenberg and Elliott's findings (1989b) linking media use to media dependency.

We also discovered differences in the factors influencing theatrical and videotape movie attendance. While diversion gratifications, general and inconvenience content avoidances influenced either past or future theatrical movie attendance, only the avoidance factors influenced videotape viewing. Moreover, though past theatrical movie attendance was a significant predictor of future movie attendance, it was far less important than past videotape viewing as a predictor of future videotape viewing (βs of .16 and .50, respectively).

To focus on movies, both theatrical and videotape, as an example of how media orientations and dependencies are or are not related to movie attendance, represents an intermediate attempt to explain how expectations about and dependency on media may influence both processing and outcomes of media use. Based on our findings, we propose a modified model for future research.

One of the possible areas for research on media orientations and dependency, implied in recent reviews of the relationships between mass media and social cognition research by Reeves, Chaffee and Tims (1982) and Slater (1989), would involve the investigation of how orientations, both gratifications and avoidances, and dependencies

influence media selection and information processing and how each of these in turn influences the range of behavioral, attitudinal and cognitive effects that can result from media exposure. These applications await testing in model 3.

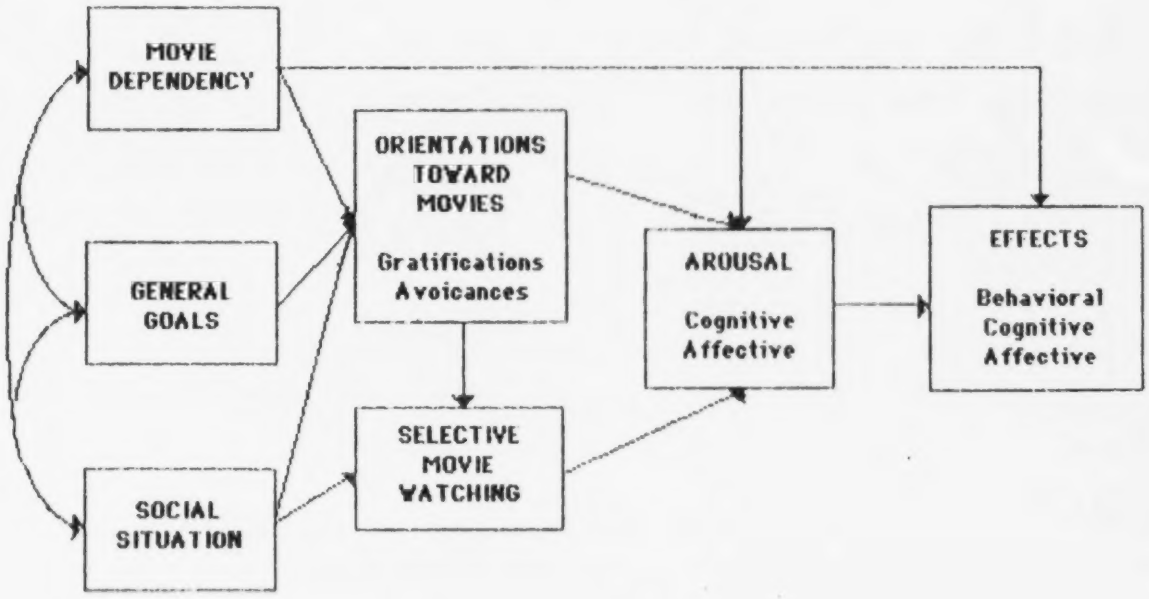

Figure 10

Model 3: Orientations Toward Movies, Movie Dependency, Movie Viewing, Arousal, and Effects

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APPENDIX A

MEDIA USE SURVEY
MARCH-APRIL 1988

Factor Analysis

Gratifications Associated with Movies

All factor analyses were completed using principal components analysis with varimax rotation and the SPSS-X statistical package. All factor loadings represent the loadings on the rotated factor matrix. The total N for this wave of the study was 151. Subjects were asked how much they agreed with each of the following statements.

	F1	F2	F3
Factor One: Diversion (α = .78)			
Movies help me escape from the routine of schoolwork.	**.70**	.11	.13
Movies help me to release built-up tension.	**.82**	.15	.27
Movies are very entertaining.	**.64**	.29	-.25
Movies help me get rid of my frustrations and anxieties.	**.75**	.10	.31
Factor Two: Information			
Movies are helpful for improving my mind.	.29	**.78**	-.03
Movies help me get in touch with my inner self.	.31	**.72**	.07
Movies help me keep up with important events.	.03	**.63**	.45
Movies provide me new experiences.	.38	**.52**	-.01
Factor Three: Social Contact			
Movies make me feel like I'm part of a crowd.	.03	.16	**.69**
Movies help me overcome feelings of loneliness.	.34	-.01	**.71**

Uninterpreted:

Movies help me to feel close to someone I really care about.	.47	.40	.13
Movies help to improve my body.	-.12	.51	.30
Movies make me feel successful.	.28	.48	.51

Factor Table

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percentage	Cronbach's Alpha
F1	4.67	35.9%	35.9	.78
F2	1.41	10.8%	46.8	
F3	1.24	9.5%	56.3	

APPENDIX B

MOVIE USE SURVEY
MARCH 1989

Factor Analysis

Gratifications Associated with Movies

All factor analyses were completed using principal components analysis with varimax rotation and the SPSS-X statistical package. All factor loadings represent the loadings on the rotated factor matrix except for "Movie Dependency" which had a single factor. The total N for this wave of the study was 378 which was reduced to 358 after listwise deletion.

I watch movies on videotape or in theaters because . . .	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
Factor One: Personal Identity (α = .71)							
Movies help me learn things about how to deal with my own problems.	**.80**	.21	.14	-.01	.01	.09	.17
Some of the things I see in movies help me solve my problems.	**.76**	.19	.20	.05	-.09	.08	-.02
I can identify with the personal problems of movie characters.	**.64**	.05	.06	.15	.11	.02	-.12
I think of some of the people in the movies as my friends.	**.54**	.02	.00	.02	.27	-.03	.15
Factor Two: General Learning (α = .79)							
Movies help me learn about other cultures.	.08	**.85**	.11	-.10	.04	.00	-.06
Movies help me to learn about other people, places and things.	.18	**.79**	.17	.03	.03	.03	-.05
Movies help me to learn about historical periods and events.	.12	**.75**	-.02	.03	.10	-.09	.13
Factor Three: Diversion (α = .72)							
Movies help me to release built-up tension.	.22	.10	**.71**	.09	.08	-.05	.10
Movies help me to relax.	-.02	.03	**.69**	.17	.04	.28	.08
Movies help me escape from the routine of schoolwork.	.12	.13	**.68**	.11	-.01	.14	-.25
Movies help me get rid of my anxieties and frustrations.	.34	.02	**.59**	.10	.26	-.15	.34

Factor Four: Entertainment (α = .63)							
Movies are very entertaining.	.00	.05	.26	**.69**	-.05	.21	.12
I generally feel good after I finish seeing a movie.	.09	-.05	.10	**.68**	.12	.03	.01
Watching movies is a good way just to have fun.	-.08	-.06	.30	**.58**	.27	-.07	.08
I like to watch movies with someone I really care about.	.20	.12	-.10	**.56**	.06	.08	-.21
Factor Five: Interpersonal Communication (α = .69)							
Movies are a good thing to talk about when you start a conversation.	.04	.15	.07	.20	**.73**	.10	-.08
Movies make me feel like I'm part of a crowd.	.25	.04	.11	-.10	**.73**	.00	.18
Movies give me something to talk about with other people.	.03	.17	-.01	.34	**.62**	.31	.00
Factor Six:							
I want to see the movies everyone is talking about.	.06	.01	.10	.03	.16	**.78**	-.01
Factor Seven:							
Movies help me overcome feelings of loneliness.	.37	.06	.30	.00	.19	.12	**.53**
It's a good thing to do socially.	.11	-.06	.23	.27	.37	.10	**-.49**
I like to see the beautiful scenes and places.	.08	**.49**	-.02	.12	.14	.17	**.42**
Movies keep me from being bored.	.11	-.06	.27	.31	-.02	**.51**	**.42**
Movies provide me with experience couldn't get on my own.	.33	.30	.10	.27	.23	-.20	.30
It gives me something to do with other people.	.00	-.01	.02	.39	**.40**	**.47**	-.03

FACTOR TABLE

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percentage	Cronbach's Alpha
F1	5.61	22.5%	22.5%	.71
F2	2.63	10.5%	33.0%	.79
F3	1.80	7.2%	40.2%	.72
F4	1.46	5.9%	46.1%	.63
F5	1.20	4.8%	50.9%	.69
F6*	1.12	4.5%	55.4%	
F7*	1.05	4.2%	59.6%	

*F6 was a single item factor and F7 was difficult to interpret.

Movie Avoidances

	F1	F2	F3
I don't watch movies on videotape or in theaters because . . .			
Factor One: Specific Content (α = .84)			
Movies have too much explicit sex and nudity.	**.89**	.06	.12
There is too much obscene language in today's movies.	**.86**	.05	.07
Movies are too violent.	**.77**	.22	.14
Factor Two: Inconvenience (α = .69)			
I really don't have the time to watch movies.	.14	**.66**	.12
It is too much trouble to go to a videostore to rent a tape.	.09	**.66**	.24
It is too much trouble to go to a theater to see a movie.	-.00	**.62**	.39
I prefer to watch movies free on television.	.20	**.59**	-.22
It costs too much to rent tapes at a videostore.	.18	**.55**	.07
It is too expensive to see a movie at a theater.	-.04	**.52**	.18

Factor Three: General Content (α = .68)

Most movies don't live up to my expectations.	.17	.07	**.83**
I don't like most of the themes used in the movies.	.13	.26	**.76**
Too many movies are done in poor taste.	**.50**	.26	**.48**

FACTOR TABLE

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percentage	Cronbach's Alpha
F1	4.01	33.4%	33.4%	.84
F2	1.70	14.2%	47.6%	.69
F3	1.16	9.7%	57.3%	.68

Movie Dependency

	F1
Movie Dependency (α = .78)	
Watching movies is an important part of my lifestyle.	**.80**
I would really miss not being able to go to any movies.	**.73**
I would rather spend my leisure time watching movies than doing something else.	**.72**
If I weren't able to watch movies on video or at a theater I would feel lost.	**.70**
I could get along easily without watching any movies.	**-.68**

FACTOR TABLE

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percentage	Cronbach's Alpha
F1	2.68	53.7%	53.7%	.78

Appendix C

Zero-Order Pearsonian Correlations* Social Location, Weekend Escape Needs, and Escape Gratifcations Associated with Movies (N=148)

	Work Hours/ Weekend	Spending Money	Weekend Diversion	Movie Diversion	Past Theater Attendance	Future Theater Attendance
Sex**	-.062	.072	-.242	-.328	-.096	.012
Hours/Weekend		-.030	.049	.041	-.114	-.148
Spending Money			-.192	-.050	.166	.079
Weekend Diversion				.387	.065	.071
Movie Diversion					.193	.162
Past Theatrical Attendance						.290

* For an N of 148, correlations of ± .163 are significant at the $p \leq .05$ level, correlations of ± .214 are signficiant at the $p \leq .01$ level, and correlations of ± .273 are significant at the $p \leq .001$ level (all two-tailed tests).

** Dummy variable coded, 0=female, 1=male.

Appendix D

Zero-Order Pearsonian Correlations*
Social Location, Gratifications and
Avoidances Associated with Movies
(N=235)

	Work Hours/ Week	Spending Money	Identity	Learning	Diver-sion	Enter-tainment	Inter-personal	General Content	Specific Content	Incon-venience
Sex**	-.147	-.052	-.041	-.094	-.104	-.156	.053	.245	-.259	.086
Hours/Week		-.082	.046	.070	.039	.124	.040	-.024	.136	.041
Spending Money			.065	-.086	-.010	.124	.042	-.098	-.044	-.237
Identity				.332	.435	.151	.223	-.101	-.067	-.074
Learning					.260	.112	.239	.033	.142	-.050
Diversion						.374	.329	-.205	-.054	-.215
Entertainment							.368	-.349	-.142	-.316
Interpersonal								-.125	-.067	-.089
General Content									.442	.498
Specific Content										.269

* For an N of 235, correlations of ± .129 are significant at the $p \leq .05$ level, correlations of ± .169 are signficiant at the $p \leq .01$ level, and correlations of ± .216 are significant at the $p \leq .001$ level (all two-tailed tests).

** Dummy variable coded, 0=female, 1=male.